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Doubt, Doubts, and Doubters: The Genesis of a New Research Agenda?

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7.1. INTRODUCTION

Contingent valuation (CV) study was conducted in the early 1960s (Hanemann, 1963), a small number of studies were conducted in the 1970s (Hanemann and Brown, 1974; Randall *et al.*, 1974; Brookshire *et al.*, 1976; Bishop and Heberlein, 1979), and the 1980s and 1990s have experienced an explosion in contingent valuation studies (Carson *et al.*, 1992). Doubters have not been in expressing their concerns about CV. Early concerns were successfully expressed by Scott when he characterized CV with the statement 'ask the research question and you will get a hypothetical response' 1965: 37. Research exploring the validity and reliability of CV estimates has been through a sometimes focused and sometimes random process over two decades, criticisms of CV have generally been sporadic, with the doubts being refreshed over and over again. This evolution changed drastically with the Exxon Valdez oil spill in 1989. No longer was CV an occasional curiosity of practitioners or a tool of Government economists the results of a cost-benefit analysis would only indirectly affect a segment of society. CV became the focal point in determining a fair payment by a single, but large, corporation, Exxon. Exxon brought a number of economists together to attack the credibility of CV, focusing on measurement of non-use values to support their legal defence in the resources damage litigation ensuing from the Exxon Valdez oil spill. The focus of the critiques was on non-use values because this component of value was expected to be a large portion of any monetary damage put forward by the federal and state trustees responsible for protecting damaged resources. After the case was settled out of court Exxon presented its major critiques of CV estimates of non-use values in a

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book edited by Hausman (1993) entitled *Contingent Valuation: A Critical Assessment*. Although the experiments presented in the Hausman book focused specifically on the application of CV to the measurement of non-use values, the doubts expressed were implicitly extended, perhaps accidentally, to CV measurements of use values.

In response to this book, which many considered to express the opinions of consultants to Exxon, the United States National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) commissioned an independent Contingent Valuation Panel... to evaluate the use of (contingent valuation) determining nonuse values' (NOAA, 1993: 4610). The NOAA Panel concluded that CV estimates of non-use values do 'convey useful information' (ibid.) when their proposed guide-lines for conducting a CV study followed. The outcome of the Exxon-funded critique and NOAA response clearly sent the message that conditions for conducting CV studies had changed. Doubters now had a solid foothold to express their doubts. Supporters of CV were forced to recognize a well-organized and -funded attack on CV methodologies.

CV research, as a cohesive investigation, is incomplete and many questions remain. By focusing on these questions, rather than taking maturely fast and firm positions, it may be possible to facilitate a more constructive debate. In the mean time, a healthy dose of concern is important in the application, use, and interpretation of CV. This is true for empirical methodology, but doubts and scepticism are not sufficient to dismiss any analytical tool. The current debate helps to focus the issues and concern in the application of CV. In the remainder of this chapter, I identify what we believe are some of the more important issues facing applications today. Before turning to these specific issues, we attempt to place the current debate over the validity of CV in a broader context.

7.2. A BROADER VIEW OF THE ISSUE OF CONCERN

The Hausman book is not the first assessment of the 'state of the art' of CV and the NOAA Panel's report is not the first attempt to develop guidelines for conducting CV studies. Cummings *et al.* (1986) did the first assessment of CV and proposed some very restrictive 'reference operating conditions' where CV was deemed to work well. The Cummings book, like the Hausman book, was denigrated by some critics but for the opposite reason. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) provided funding for the assessment that led to the book and some viewed this as an attempt to deem CV good enough for government work and to avoid additional funding of CV validation studies.

Fischhoff and Furby proposed conditions for a 'satisfactory (CV) transaction' where respondents 'are fully informed, uncoerced, and able to identify

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own best interests' (1988: 148). The Fischhoff and Furby contribution to CV credibility because they are generally deemed to be outsiders to the debate. They explicitly acknowledged the hypothetical nature of CV and that 'specifying all relevant features and ensuring they have been included, is essential to staging transactions. Unless a feature is specified, it is essentially and comprehensively, [CV respondents]... must guess' (ibid. 179-180). They go on to state that 'ensuring understanding is the responsibility of the researcher who pose the transaction' (ibid. 180). At this juncture, Fischhoff and Furby implicitly appear to be judging CV against an absolute criterion, a satisfactory transaction. Two sides to this debate arise. A more pragmatic approach would reveal that consumers do not have full information when making market decisions, so why should such an ideal be applied to CV applications? On the other hand, consumers can choose among the transactions when making market decisions, and we do not know what position they use, so we must provide as much information as possible. CV research does not, however, recognize potential cognitive overload by respondents and the heuristics they may employ when answering CV questions in this context.

Despite the fact that three decades have elapsed since the publication of the Hausman book, the basic critique of CV has changed little. Hausman states in his preface to his edited book that 'CV... differs significantly from most other research in economics, which is based on market data caused by individual decisions made by consumers and firms' (1993: vii). The basic critique still centres around the hypothetical nature of CV; money is not exchanged. Although revealed behaviour results in the estimation of individual surplus, which is not the desired Hicksian compensating or equivalent welfare measure (Mäler, 1974; Just *et al.*, 1982; Freeman, 1993), CV estimates are more confident in economic theory and econometrics to estimate Hicksian surplus than they are in individuals' statements of value. Doubters appear readily to accept the use of economic theory to establish Willig (1976) bounds or a combination of theory and econometrics to estimate exact (Hicksian) welfare measures (McKenzie and Pearce, 1976; Hausman, 1981).

Practitioners, on the other hand, have confidence that responses to hypothetical questions will approximate behaviour when money is actually exchanged, yielding acceptable estimates of Hicksian welfare. In the domain of CV, a number of field and laboratory experiments lend credence to the confidence (Bishop *et al.*, 1983; Dickie *et al.*, 1987; Kealy *et al.*, 1988). Comparisons of CV estimates with actual cash transactions are known as tests of criterion validity (Carmine and Zeller, 1979). No criterion validity studies exist to provide a comparable level of confidence in CV transactions to the estimation of non-use values.

Methodological problems exist with both the Hausman and NOAA Contingent Valuation Panel positions. The Hausman book and the NOAA

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Panel report do not clearly distinguish applications of CV to measure use values from applications to measuring non-use values. There has been much more research conducted to investigate CV applications to use values than to non-use values (Cummings *et al.*, 1986; Mitchell and Carson, 1992; Carson *et al.*, 1992) and, consequently, there is less controversy surrounding the use of CV to measure use values. People who are unfamiliar with the CV debate have construed the Hausman, Leonard, and NOAA Panel report to criticize all applications of CV, not just those to measuring non-use values. Both works, however, are concerned with potential problems associated with attempting to use CV for measuring non-use values. The issue of concern is also clouded by many CV studies estimating total values or option prices that include both use and non-use components.

Critiques in the Hausman book implicitly evaluate CV on an absolute scale where the outcome is either right or wrong, not in the context of other methods involved in the application of other empirical methodologies. The NOAA Panel recognized this inconsistency when they deemed CV acceptable by standards that seem to be implicit in similar contexts' (1993: 4610). For example, one line of criticism follows from the fact that CV estimates are inconsistent with what is suggested by economic theory (Devoussche *et al.*, 1992; Diamond *et al.*, 1993). These inconsistencies also arise in the analysis of market data, but the conditions of economic theory (e.g., adding homogeneity, symmetry) are often imposed on the data to ensure estimates are consistent with theory (Deaton and Muellbauer, 1980). The Hausman critique also overlooks the fact that market data are collected by some of survey and can be subject to some of the same concerns expressed regarding CV. The NOAA Panel position on CV standards is of concern because it proposed guide-lines that in many cases are without citations to document the recommended protocol and to place it in context with existing literatures on economic welfare theory, survey research methodology, and existing valuation research, or comparable empirical analyses.

Within a research agenda, practical applications aside, objective and must be employed to evaluate the credibility of any empirical methodology and CV is no exception. The usefulness of a methodology for practical applications arises from the extent to which the methodology is capable of meeting a desired theoretical construct. In CV research, this is generally evaluated in terms of the validity and reliability of value estimates (Carson and Zeller, 1979; Mitchell and Carson, 1989). Within this context, Fiebert and Furby proposed a conceptual framework for the conduct of CV studies but they do not delve substantially into the context for accomplishing such proposals.

The NOAA Panel considered more of the details of accomplishing a study of non-use values. They addressed sample type and size, minimizing non-response, using personal interviews, pre-testing for interviewer effects,

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of sampling procedures, questionnaire pre-testing, conservative use of willingness to pay, using referendum questions, accurate comparisons, descriptions, pre-testing photographs, reminders of substitutes, and other issues (1993: 4611-14). Despite the prognostications of this and other group of economists, hard questions remain. For example, CV questions have typically employed mail surveys and the Panel did not discuss in detail why mail surveys are inappropriate and personal interviews more appropriate. Referendum questions are simply dichotomous questions with the payment vehicle posed as a referendum. Consider Fiebert and Furby's conceptual protocol, a referendum is not the right payment vehicle for all social contexts, i.e., respondents may know the option or payment will be not be established by referendum vote. What if asking respondents of substitutes does not affect value estimates? Does it mean that CV is fundamentally flawed because respondents do not consider substitutes when formulating value responses, or did the investigators simply the wrong set of substitutes, or do respondents consider substitutes without prompting? Thus, while helpful in raising questions for the CV research agenda, the NOAA Panel's recommendations also do not go far in answering the hard questions that must be addressed when using a CV study.

In the ensuing discussion we focus on selected issues associated with using CV which appear to us to be of greatest current concern in the literature. This is done within the context of the CV literature. Issues that CV values estimates, but are not unique to the method, such as the lack of a functional form in data analyses, will not be extensively discussed. The discussion is organized around value conceptualization, questionnaire design (information issues and CV methodology), and data

7.3. VALUE CONCEPTUALIZATION

Using the value to be estimated is a necessary prerequisite of any valuation study regardless of whether CV, some other non-market valuation methodology, or market data are to be employed. Three issues rise to the fore in CV studies: (1) understanding option price; (2) sorting out non-use values; and (3) the relationship between estimates of willingness to pay and willingness-to-accept compensation (WTA). Option price and non-use values are interrelated because non-use values can be components of WTP or WTA. Given that option price is the measure of an individual's value under conditions of uncertainty, this provides a useful starting point for the discussion. The non-use value issue, however, is shimmering below the surface.

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7.3.1. Option Price

Let us start with a simple example where

$$V(p_{gw}, P, I; GW)$$

is an indirect utility function representing an individual's optimal choice regarding consumption of groundwater, p_{gw} is the price of potable groundwater, P is a vector of prices of substitute sources of potable water, income, and GW is a vector of non-use arguments relating to groundwater quality. All other terms are suppressed for notational convenience. Let us assume that there are a variety of discrete threats to the groundwater resource and we wish to measure the value of reducing the probability of contamination. The appropriate measure of value is option price (Bishop, 1982; Smith, 1983; Freeman, 1993; Ready, 1993). Option price (op) can be defined by

$$\sum_i \pi_i V(p_{gw,i}, P, I - op; GW) = \sum_i \pi_i V(p_{gw,i}, P, I; GW) \quad i = 1, \dots$$

where π_i is the probability of alternative groundwater conditions, and I_i and GW_i are indexed by i to indicate that they may be influenced by groundwater condition. The effects on p_{gw} and GW are obvious, while assumed that I (income) is net of health expenditures resulting from consumption of contaminated groundwater. Option price (op) in this example, which assumes supply uncertainty and demand certainty, is a subset of probabilities associated with groundwater contamination. If $\pi_i \leq \pi_j$ for at least one i ,²

Three issues can be developed from this simple example. The first is from a recognition that option price depends critically on the change in the probability of contamination. In the CV literature, practitioners have tended to overlook probabilities in the design of CV questions and in analyses of CV data (Boyle and Bishop, 1987; Desvousges *et al.*, 1993; Loomis, 1987). Some notable exceptions do exist, including studies that attempt to incorporate the role of subjective probabilities into CV design and data analyses (Smith and Desvousges, 1987; Edwards, Loomis and duVair, 1993; Bergstrom and Dorfman, 1994). If option price is to be estimated, the CV question should be framed to include both baseline (π_j) and alternative (π_i) probabilities. This information is frequently utilized to analyse and interpret CV responses. This is particularly true for applications of dichotomous-choice questions where estimating

probabilities, based on the value definition, provide the basis for deriving estimates of central tendency (Hanemann, 1984; Cameron, 1988; McConnell, 1990).

Information regarding the change in the likelihood of contamination missing from the CV question, respondents guess at the current and future likelihoods of contamination, and there is no assurance that all respondents will impose the same assumptions (Lindell and Earle, 1983). Then, different respondents impose different assumptions, then, CV questions can only be assumed to be loosely associated with the desired CV value and aggregating individual CV responses may be akin to adding apples and oranges, whereas under the best of conditions, perhaps, the problem may be no worse than aggregating different varieties of apples. The absence of probability information appears to be an act of accidental omission in many cases. In some cases, however, CV exercises are not well-suited to physical changes that are occurring in the resource. In the case of groundwater contamination, CV studies have been hindered by the absence of response models that reveal how the policy being valued will affect groundwater contamination (Boyle *et al.*, 1994). Thus, physical scientists are not providing all of the information needed to effectively apply CV estimates to assess specific environmental policy and management options.

The second issue also relates to uncertainty—even if information on the likelihood of contamination is provided in a CV question, respondents may use this information in favour of their own subjective perceptions of contamination. In a classic study, Lichtenstein *et al.* (1978) demonstrate people tend to overestimate the likelihood of low-probability events and underestimate the likelihood of higher-probability events (see also Kaak and Jani, 1992). If this is the case, providing information on the likelihood of contamination in the CV question may not be sufficient; it may also be necessary to elicit respondents' subjective perceptions of the likelihood of contamination in the survey. Doing this, however, opens other potentially variable doors. Should subjective probabilities be elicited prior or subsequent to the CV question? The former can be used as exogenous regressors but may not represent those used in answering the CV question if that information is contained in the question itself. Subjective probabilities elicited immediately subsequent to the CV question may be more representative of the information respondents used in answering the CV question, but this data is endogenous to the valuation exercise. These issues have not been explored in the CV literature, and if they have been explored, they have been explored in other contexts, this literature has not been brought to the attention of CV. If respondents employ subjective probabilities when answering CV questions, the resulting value estimates are only appropriate for a policy that actually reduces the probability of contamination, for example, by the proportion that respondents subjectively employ. Different

² Option value is not considered here because it is simply the difference between option and expected consumer surplus (Bishop, 1982). It is an artefact of uncertainty that does not arise from arguments in individuals' preferences.

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respondents may employ different subjective probabilities, further complicating the interpretation of CV data unless this issue is explicitly addressed in the analysis.

Another implication of subjective editing is that CV studies which attempt to measure values under certainty may actually be measuring values under uncertainty—that is, option price. For example, many CV studies are framed to estimate values under conditions of supply certainty. However, the description of potential effects of a proposed policy in a CV question may not be clear to respondents or respondents may not believe that the outcome of the policy will occur with certainty. The consequence is that respondents may edit the information presented, transforming the CV question to valuation under uncertainty. Even if supply is certain and the description is completely clear, respondents may be providing option prices if their demand is uncertain. Thus, changes in probabilities, whether objective or subjective, are fundamental to CV studies and the ramifications of these are relatively unexplored in the CV literature.

The third issue relates to the components of option price. Since option price can be interpreted as economic value under uncertainty (Ranney, 1991), it can include both use and non-use values as components. The ongoing debate among researchers and decision-makers is the relative importance of these two component values while the interrelationship of these components remains unknown (Fisher and Hanauer, 1984). For example, are use and non-use values complementary or substitutes?

The bottom line is that although option price is perhaps the most widely estimated value in the CV literature, this value is generally treated as a black box, without concern for the component parts. Such benign neglect may be acceptable in a policy context where option price is the desired welfare measure, but this state of affairs is simply unacceptable from a research perspective when considering the validity and reliability of estimates.

7.3.2. Non-Use Values

This is not the place to debate the validity of non-use values and their relevance for public policy (Kopp, 1992); rather, non-use values are accepted for this discussion and the estimation of these values is considered (Bishop and Welsh, 1992; Carson *et al.*, Chapter 4 of this volume). We consider two main areas of investigation in the literature: alternative CV approaches for measuring non-use values and explorations of revealed-preference techniques for measuring non-use values.

With respect to CV approaches for measuring non-use values, one literature research starts with the estimation of option price, or total value in conditions of certainty, and then estimates non-use values conditional on the absence of any use opportunities (Boyle and Bishop, 1987). An alternative

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approach asks respondents for total values and to allocate their responses to a menu of component values, which includes several types of 'use value motivations' (altruism, bequest, etc.) (Walsh *et al.*, 1984; Carson, 1987). The debate over these two approaches has been going on for a decade without any resolution, or any solid research to support either position.

The former approach has the advantage that non-use values are conditioned on a specific set of circumstances—but is this set of circumstances relevant for the policy question at hand? If embedding does occur as suggested by Kahneman and Knetsch (1992), then this approach may reduce the ability for respondents to provide responses composed of use and non-use values when only non-use values are requested. If use and non-use values are complementary, then non-use values are overestimated if use truly would not be included. The converse occurs if they are substitutes. Conditioning non-use values on the absence of use values would be irrelevant if these components are neither complements nor substitutes.

The menu approach avoids having non-use values conditioned on the absence of use values, but has a comparable drawback. Unless value components each arise from weakly separable components of individuals' preferences, the component values will not be additive. If preferences for component values are not separable, estimates for individual components conditioned on the sequence in which the researcher designs the menu of values. In addition, questions arise regarding whether the components of a response menu are appropriate or whether respondents are answering the question in the only way possible given the framing of the response menu.

In a recent article, Larson (1993) challenges the conventional wisdom that CV is the only game in town when it comes to measuring non-use values, and develops a conceptual framework for revealed-preference measurement of non-use values. For opponents of CV this makes the method more palatable whereas for proponents it provides an empirical testing-ground for validation of non-use value measures. Larson's conceptual framework is upon such activities as money and time committed to environmental use as revealed-behaviour linkages to non-use values. While these activities are likely indicators of non-use values, they may also contain a use component which is difficult to separate out from the non-use component. Environmental-NGO members, for example, may receive publications to read and other services which contribute to use values (Portney, 1994). In addition, individuals holding non-use values who have not demonstrated choice-based behaviour are omitted.

Another more general problem exists in much of the non-use value literature—non-use values are not well understood and defined. Misunderstanding begins with the label ('non-use', 'existence', 'bequest', and 'passive use') and carries through to empirical estimates. All that appears to be clearly

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known is that non-use values do not *require* any revealed-preference behaviour or direct interaction with the environmental resource. Beyond point the waters become murky rather quickly, precluding progress regarding the validation of economic estimates of non-use values using CV or other technique. Since explorations of alternatives to CV for measuring use values are in their infancy, the spotlight has been on CV as the technique for measuring non-use values. Issues surrounding the definition, measurement, and application of non-use values, however, are much more than concerns one might have about CV as an economic valuation technique, but at this time the two (CV and non-use values) appear to be systemically rather than fraternally connected.

7.3.3. WTP and WTA Disparity

The CV literature has a number of studies demonstrating substantial empirical differences between WTP and WTA (Bishop *et al.*, 1983; Knetsch, Sinden, 1984; Brookshire and Coursey, 1987; Coursey *et al.*, 1987). Economic theory suggests that the difference between WTP and WTA should be small if income effects are small (Just *et al.*, 1982; Freeman, 1993) or substitutes exist for the commodity being valued (Hanemann, 1991). However, even when these conditions appear to be met in empirical studies, unreasonably large disparities between WTP and WTA have been observed. Kahneman and Tversky (1984) use 'prospect theory' to suggest that these disparities between WTP and WTA might be explained by respondents shifting reference points when valuing gains and losses of equal magnitude. At this point, however, the disparity between WTP and WTA observed in empirical CV studies remains an enigma. Problems with adequately explaining observed disparities between WTP and WTA, and unrealistically high estimates of WTP relative to WTA, prompted the NOAA Panel to recommend the use of WTP.

In many natural resource and environmental situations, WTA is theoretically correct welfare measure (Vain and Bromley, 1994). It includes situations, for example, where an individual may suffer the loss of a natural resource over which they hold initial rights. In such a case, the correct Hicksian welfare measure is the minimum compensation it would take to bring the individual back up to his or her pre-loss utility level (*et al.*, 1982; Freeman, 1993). Because of the theoretical relevance of WTA under certain property-right structures, it seems inconsistent simultaneously to advocate the use of CV and exclude applications to WTA. For example, Coursey *et al.* (1987) found that WTP is stable in repeated trials, while WTA declines over repeated trials and asymptotically approaches WTP. The experimental results, although not directly transferable to CV applications, do suggest possible means for reducing the disparity between WTP and WTA in CV surveys.

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7.4. ELICITATION AND ANALYSIS OF CV RESPONSES

In section we first discuss issues surrounding the question format used to elicit responses. Implicit in the Fischhoff and Furdy article is the recognition that the design of CV questions for eliciting values contains two different, related, components. The first is the description of the commodity being valued (commodity description) and the second is the description of the institutional setting for valuing the commodity (contingent market). These two components stand alone, but each raises separate issues to be considered.

7.4.1. Commodity Description

Commodity description constitutes the bridge between the theoretical notion of value and respondents' value responses. As such, this is the most important component of any CV study, because it tells respondents what they are valuing and flaws in this information can undermine the entire valuation exercise. The concerns here can be succinctly expressed with three questions.

Information do respondents need to answer CV questions? What information unduly influences CV responses, i.e. leads respondents to under- or overstate their values? And is it possible to create information that is not by providing respondents with an overly detailed commodity description?

Turning back to the groundwater option price in Equation (7.2), the commodity description would detail the contaminants and the effects of contamination. The baseline likelihood of contamination would be presented along with its proposed change. The availability and cost of substitute uses of potable water would also be provided, as advocated by the NOAA Panel. This collective information is what Fischhoff and Furdy refer to as the 'good'. They state that 'achieving... clarity in [the commodity description]... is a craft, but one that can be aided by the scientific study of potential pitfalls' and 'has been part of the research methodology of every environmental scientist that asks people to answer unfamiliar questions' (1988: 154). A number of studies have found the addition or deletion of information in commodity descriptions can have statistically significant effects on CV responses (Bergstrom and Stoll, 1989; Bergstrom *et al.*, 1989, 1990; Boyle, Poe, 1993; Munro and Hanley, Chapter 9 of this volume), highlighting the need to investigate appropriate commodity descriptions.

Bergstrom *et al.* (1990) group information used to describe an environmental commodity under two broad headings, characteristic and service information. Characteristic information describes the objective physical properties of an environmental commodity (e.g. groundwater quantity and quality). Service information describes how changes in commodity characteristics affect use and non-use service flows (e.g. drinking-water services and

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existence value of clean aquifers). This may be less important for the estimation of use than non-use values because users may be relatively more familiar with the implications of a change in the resource. If users have not experienced the proposed condition of the resource, service information may be of primary importance when individuals are answering CV questions designed to elicit use values (Boyle *et al.*, 1993).

Identifying appropriate types and amounts of characteristic and service information to describe an environmental commodity adequately is a difficult task. Additionally, relevant information is not limited to that regarding the characteristics and services of the environmental commodity *per se*. The NOAA Panel, for example, stresses the need to include substitute information in a CV survey. But the literature is not clear as to how much substitute information is 'enough'. In a meta-analysis of CV studies of groundwater value (Boyle *et al.*, 1994), information regarding the cost of substituting significantly reduced WTP responses while information about substitute availability did not. Cummings *et al.* (1994) have also shown that the provision of information on substitutes can influence values in a laboratory setting. Considering the research agenda, particularly in the context of field experiments, addressing substitutes is not easy. If CV estimates are not statistically sensitive to information on substitutes, a number of plausible explanations arise: respondents neglected to consider substitutes so CV estimates are flawed, likely overestimating the true value; the investigator provided the wrong set of substitutes so the study design is flawed; respondents were already considering substitutes so the provision of information in the CV experiment was redundant.³

The NOAA Panel proposed a 'burden of proof' test where, in the absence of reliable reference surveys, . . . pretesting and other experiments⁴, practitioners must show that each CV 'survey does not suffer from the problem that their guidelines are intended to avoid' (1993: 4614). As the example of the preceding paragraph illustrates, the burden of proof can constitute a formidable obstacle. Statistical results, whether from a CV study or a survey using market data, can be subject to multiple interpretations and identifying appropriate conclusions can often be difficult at best. The correct substitutes may vary across goods and sample populations, making it difficult to establish a set of reference surveys. These concerns are unique to substitutes, but may be pervasive throughout commodity definitions.

Ferretting out an appropriate commodity description has generally been based on the issue to be valued, discussions with individuals knowledgeable with the valuation issue, the theoretical definition of value, previous studies of similar topics, and the investigators' experience. This is where the

³ It is assumed that the CV experiment would have a design where respondents be randomly stratified into those who do, and those who do not, receive information on substitutes.

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researcher and Furbey discuss plays a crucial role in the design process. Using the survey instrument typically involves the use of focus groups, pre-tests, and more recently verbal protocols allowing the survey instrument to be tailored to the specific application (Desvousges *et al.*, 1997; Land *et al.*, 1993).

A criticism of such an individualized, interactive approach to survey design is that information provision may become endogenous to the survey process. How does this repeated interaction affect the researchers' perception of the valuation problem (e.g. does the nature of the commodity to be valued change)? Furthermore, the iterative nature of such an approach to the CV researchers to decide, on an *ad hoc* basis, to add or drop information based on insights gained from focus groups, pre-tests, etc. If statistical tests are not conducted to investigate the effects of adding or dropping information, how do we know what the final effects of such changes are on CV responses?

In any event, we do not know what information respondents need, so information provision often appears to be a hit-or-miss attempt to provide a complete and complete information, perhaps subject to the whims of individual investigators. In addition, commodity descriptions are often constrained by the availability of technical details regarding proposed changes to the system. Progress demands a systematic research programme to identify and classify the specific types of information respondents commonly use in answering CV questions and how this varies across applications and/or respondents. Furthermore, such a research process must be conducted in an interdisciplinary context to improve the technical information that often underlies the basis of commodity descriptions.

7.4.2. Contingent Market or Referendum Description

Issues are explored in this subsection: (1) choice of CV question format; (2) selection of a payment vehicle; (3) treatment of zero, protest, and missing bids; and (4) mode of data collection. The NOAA Panel's recommendation of referendum questions provides an underlying linkage of these issues. Referendum questions are dichotomous-choice questions with the payment vehicle posed as a referendum vote.

Dichotomous-Choice Questions

A number of different formats have been used to frame CV questions, with dichotomous-choice, open-ended, and unanchored payment cards being commonly employed in the literature today (for more discussion of question formats, see Langford and Bateman, Chapter 12 of this volume). The most important questions, however, centre on dichotomous-choice (DC) questions. A generic DC question, given a commodity description and appropriate payment vehicle, might be posed as:

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Would you pay \$—— per year to reduce groundwater contamination so drinking water meets US Environmental Protection Agency standards?

The blank is filled in with a randomly assigned monetary amount (Cooper, 1993). This question can be modified to a referendum format:

Would you vote 'yes' on a referendum to reduce groundwater contamination so drinking water meets US Environmental Protection Agency standards and your personal cost would be \$——?

The referendum format has been advocated by Hoehn and Randall (1990) using incentive-compatibility arguments. The referendum format is not universally applicable. Mitchell and Carson (1989) have argued that payment vehicles must be believable and neutral in the elicitation of values. The referendum framing of DC questions is not likely to satisfy the believability condition in the elicitation of many use values because referenda are typically used to make money from these decisions. Thus, although questions are universally applicable, the referendum format is only applicable in narrower contexts.

The primary concern with DC questions is whether the monetary amount provides a value clue, thereby inadvertently affecting responses. Cooper and Loomis (1992) provide tentative evidence of these effects, and Shapiro et al. (1994) has shown that this type of anchoring can arise even with the anchor of individuals pay for market goods. These effects can occur for traditional DC questions or for DC questions posed as a referendum, and may be pronounced with multiple-bounded DC questions (McFadden, 1994). Tentative evidence on anchoring proves to true, will DC maintain its status as the fair-haired CV question format?

The anchoring concern in DC questions, however, is a prime example of the issue of relative errors discussed in the Introduction. If posing a payment vehicle question can influence what consumers will pay for a market good, a market good can influence what consumers will pay for a market good. This influence would be reflected in Marshallian estimates of consumer surplus. The anchoring effect in DC questions any worse than for market goods (e.g., posted prices)? Within this context, a statistically significant anchoring effect is not sufficient to dismiss DC questions, but it is necessary to assess the extent of this impact relative to any similar effect in revealed behavior measures. Future research on CV questions should focus on the magnitude and effect of monetary amounts in DC questions, and the relative of value estimates derived from DC questions versus competing question formats (open-ended and unanchored payment cards).

7.4.2.2. *Payment Vehicle*

Despite early evidence that payment vehicles can influence responses to DC questions (Rowe and Chestnut, 1983; Mitchell and Carson, 1985),

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research has been conducted to address this concern. The guiding principle has been the Mitchell and Carson (1989) believability and neutrality conditions, and with the extensive use of DC questions, the Hoehn and Randall (1987) incentive-compatibility argument is often invoked. In reality, payment vehicles are generally customized to each study and are refined in pre-testing, with no checks for undesirable effects of the payment vehicle on value estimates. The selection of payment vehicles would not pass NOAA Panel's burden of proof test of content validity (Carmine and Zinbarg, 1979), leaving a large hole in the CV literature.

DC questions posed as referenda are not without problems. The first problem is that 'DC' and 'referendum' are often used as synonyms to describe CV questions eliciting a yes/no response to a fixed monetary amount. This confusion has led some investigators to pose DC questions that do not use a referendum, while appealing to the Hoehn and Randall incentive-compatibility argument. As noted above, the referendum format does not always satisfy the Mitchell and Carson believability condition for some applications of DC questions. Finally, and most important, the institutional context of questions that respondents know how the payments will be collected. The referendum format must include an explanation of how the payments will be collected, e.g. per household fee on water bills, property taxes, income tax, etc. This is a full circle to the conditions where payment vehicle effects are initially identified. The referendum format of DC questions may have desirable incentive properties for eliciting values, but the inclusion of a payment mechanism may have concurrent undesirable effects. The effects on payment vehicles simply can not continue to be overlooked from either a theoretical or an empirical perspective.

Zero, Protest, and Misspecified Responses

are not issues that have been neglected in the CV literature, but they are not being resolved. Given the discussion above, the initial focus here is on DC questions. 'No' responses to DC questions are generally probed with invalid responses, searching for free-riders, individuals protesting about payment vehicle, etc. If the data are to be screened for invalid responses, responses must also be examined, for example, to identify individuals who support the project behaving strategically. Beyond this consistency in the use of the data, no established theoretical criteria or generally accepted protocols exist for excluding observations from data analyses. It is that a consensus exists that some observations may be invalid, but the exclusion of observations is generally undertaken using *ad hoc* criteria. The NOAA Panel recommended allowing respondents the option of answering 'do not know' in addition to 'yes'/'no' when answering DC questions. An additional issue relates to individuals who do not value the good. Individuals who answer 'no', but hold a positive value, are treated the same as individuals who answer 'no' and hold a value of \$0. Consideration of

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response distributions to other question formats, such as open-ended questions, suggests that a discrete spike might occur at \$0 in the distribution of values. Perhaps individuals who answer 'no' to a DC question should be given the opportunity to answer '\$0' and these responses should be modelled in the data analyses.

Concerns regarding data screening also apply to open-ended, unanchored payment cards, and other questioning formats. Open-ended questions typically result in zero bids and these bids are screened for protests and other types of invalid responses. Non-zero bids are also sometimes screened for invalid responses (e.g. a bid representing 25 per cent or more of someone's income might be interpreted as unreasonable or an error). Some investigators have used statistical routines to search for data outliers (Desvousges *et al.*, 1987). The fundamental concern remains: no established theoretical criteria or established protocols exist for excluding responses. Although the issue of zero values does not arise with most other question formats because an answer of '\$0' is allowed, the NOAA Panel's concern of allowing 'do not know' responses applies to all questioning formats.

The issue of screening CV data for invalid responses cuts to the heart of the critique that CV is not based on actual consumers' actual market decisions (Diamond and Hausman, 1994). CV practitioners, by screening CV data, implicitly acknowledge that there is some merit to this critique (Stevens *et al.*, 1994). The implicit agreement does not extend beyond this initial acknowledgement. Critics appear to be arguing that the absence of cash transactions makes all CV responses flawed or that the share of invalid responses in the data makes it useless for statistical analyses. CV practitioners appear to believe that the share of individuals providing invalid CV responses is small and these responses can be identified and addressed in data analyses. This process is not easy. Why would someone who is behaving strategically reveal this motive to an interviewer? If direct revelation of ulterior motives is not possible, is there an objective way to identify strategic responses?

These concerns also apply to accidental misstatements of value when, for example, a respondent does not fully understand the valuation task. Respondents' misunderstandings of CV scenarios, from either incomplete or unclear commodity descriptions, may be the key reason for the embedding problem, which is on the 'front burner' in the current debate over the application of CV to measuring non-use values (Diamond and Hausman, 1994; Hanemann, 1994).

It is not an easy task to establish conditions for excluding responses from CV data. A profitable line of investigation, perhaps, involves identifying groups of individuals who are likely to misstate their values either purposely or inadvertently. The focus would be on whether responses by these individuals significantly influence estimated statistics. This is not substantially different to what some investigators have done when they use the data with

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and without invalid responses, but the investigations could be more focused in terms of economic theory and more rigorous in terms of statistical analyses. Researchers should investigate the appropriateness of the NOAA Panel's 'do not know' recommendation. This issue was already being investigated prior to the NOAA recommendation (Ready *et al.*, 1995). Zero-bidders in DC data also need to be investigated, as do other influential observations such as 'outliers' (Mitchell and Carson, 1989).

As a matter of perspective, it is important to recognize that screening of data occurs in all empirical analyses, even market data. For example, the US Department of Agriculture's Market News Service collects data on the sale prices and volumes of agricultural commodities. Data reported by sellers and buyers that is deemed to be misstated in an attempt to influence market conditions is excluded from reported market statistics.⁴ The exclusion decision is made by the individual who collects the market data and the individual's superior, no explicit theory or econometric analyses are used as a basis for exclusion. Some valid data may be excluded and some invalid data may be included. It is also important to recognize that individuals operating in wholesale markets might have more knowledge, ability, and incentives to influence survey outcomes than do respondents to CV surveys. Market data, like CV data, are often collected in a survey format, with all of the associated data-collection problems and with a greater likelihood of respondents behaving strategically. Again, we are back to the issue of relative errors.

7.4.3.4. Mode of Data Collection

The NOAA Panel's recommendation of personal interviews, and its statement that they believe that it is unlikely that reliable estimates of values could be elicited with mail surveys⁵ (1993: 4608), hit a raw nerve among CV researchers and survey researchers who work with mail surveys. This is an example where a strong position has been taken without adequate reference to the literature. What is known in the literature on personal interviews and mail surveys that supports the NOAA Panel's position? Using personal interviews allows an investigator more control over respondents' CV responses, but also introduces a potential interviewer effect. How should these countervailing effects be considered?

The vast majority of CV studies have been conducted using mail surveys because the per-observation cost is less than that of personal interview surveys and most university researchers do not have access to trained interviewers. These pragmatic considerations, however, are not sufficient to justify the extensive use of mail surveys; it must be demonstrated that mail surveys are capable of providing valid and reliable CV estimates. There are only a few studies in the literature that investigate alternative

⁴ This information was received from Mr. John Boyle (Kevin Boyle's father), who is a former employee of the Market News Service.

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CV administrative modes, and these studies produce mixed or inconclusive results (Randall and Kriesel, 1990; Mannesio and Loomis, 1991; Loomis and King, 1994). Because of the dearth of research investigating the relative merits of different modes of administering CV surveys, we believe this issue deserves high priority on the CV research agenda. With personal interviews being the most expensive form of primary-data collection, the benefits of establishing mail surveys as a credible mode for conducting CV surveys can be substantial.

7.4.4. Analysis of CV Responses

Many contributions have been made to the CV literature in recent years in terms of analyzing DC data (Cameron, 1988), functional form of valuation equations (Boyle, 1990), developing bid amounts for DC questions (Cooper, 1993), computing confidence intervals for DC means (Park *et al.*, 1991)—and the list goes on and on. Looking at the future research agenda, contributions in this area might be reaching diminishing returns. Sophisticated econometric models are intended primarily to recover information from poor data. Many of the recent contributions to the CV literature accept the quality of whatever data is available and concentrate on new econometric twists to develop what may be questionable insights. However, the greatest future pay-offs may lie in two areas: (1) better understanding of individual preferences for environmental commodities, with insights from a wide variety of disciplines including economists, psychology, marketing, and philosophy (Portney, 1994), and (2) improving CV data-collection efforts to enable clearer and more robust insights from empirical analyses of these data.

7.5. CONCLUSIONS

The title of this chapter was posed as a question, so it is only appropriate to answer the question. The answer is implicit in the arguments presented within the chapter. The current debate surrounding CV has changed the rules of the game, suggesting the need for a more focused research agenda and improved study designs leading to clearer insights. This conclusion is emphasized by the NOAA Panel's 'burden of proof' condition. Rather than CV being innocent until proven guilty, the lasting impact of the Panel may be their judgement that CV estimates are guilty until proven innocent. Although the context for their pronouncement dealt with CV applications to non-use values in natural-resource damage litigation, it is clear that their guide-lines are being generally applied to all applications of CV. The loosely evolving nature of CV research and the lack of a revealed-preference connection for non-use values made the application of CV to the measurement of non-use values susceptible to criticism.

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The basic argument against CV, that transactions involving cash do not occur, comes very close to rejecting the sovereignty of consumer demand in suggesting that consumers cannot decide what is in their best interest unless money changes hands. This seems to be a relatively strict and arbitrary condition. In fact, if CV did not exist, Exxon would have looked for another weak link to reduce their potential liability payment, even if the only opportunities were revealed-preference measurements. Thus, the issue that brought CV to its current contentious position might have focused on a revealed-preference measure within another context.

Hard-and-fast positions on any issue appear to shut off the research agenda prematurely. Research is about asking hard questions and subjecting these questions to objective and rigorous study. Researchers are trained to raise doubts and act as if we were all from Missouri—that is, before we reject or accept something as 'fact', we say, 'Show me!' A healthy dose of scepticism is important in the application, use, and interpretation of any empirical methodology. However, any empirical methodology, whether it deals with estimating economic values or testing an accused criminal's DNA, cannot be rejected out of hand by unsubstantiated doubt and scepticism.

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8

A Psychological Perspective

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8.1. INTRODUCTION

From the perspective of psychology, any social survey should be seen first as an experiment to test one or more hypotheses derived from some theory. In general, psychology does not accept the axiomatic claim made for the assumptions upon which the neo-classical economic model is built. It also sees people as more fallible and complex than is assumed in neo-classical economics. Secondly, psychology differs in its model of the person. The neo-classical model is essentially static: an individual has both pre-existing preferences and perfect information. Conversely, the psychological model is a process model where the emphasis is upon how beliefs and preferences are formed or learnt, and how information is acquired. Thirdly, an interview, like any form of interpersonal communication, is regarded as fraught with the potential for misunderstanding, misdirection, mistakes, and incomprehension. Instead of having the economist's concerns for strategic bias and incentive-compatibility, the psychologist worries about whether the task asked of the respondent is one which they can do and about the likelihood that the respondent will give the answer that they feel they ought to give: socially acceptable responses or answers that others (interviewer, experimenter, sponsor, or others present) want to hear. These potential respondent effects we shall refer to as 'compliance bias' (Groves *et al.*, 1992), using this term in a somewhat broader definition than that adopted by Mitchell and Carson (1989). Fourthly, in psychology an experiment is increasingly defined as a form of discourse, an interaction between several groups of people (Figure 8.1) in which the respondent has demands and has demands placed upon him or her by the experimenter. Thus, whilst much of psychology shares with economics a focus on the behaviour of the individual in isolation, social psychology treats individual behaviour as emerging from the individual's interaction in a social context.

The task, from the psychological perspective, of the experimenter in developing a contingent valuation (CV) study, and it is here assumed that the study will involve interviews carried out face to face, as recommended by